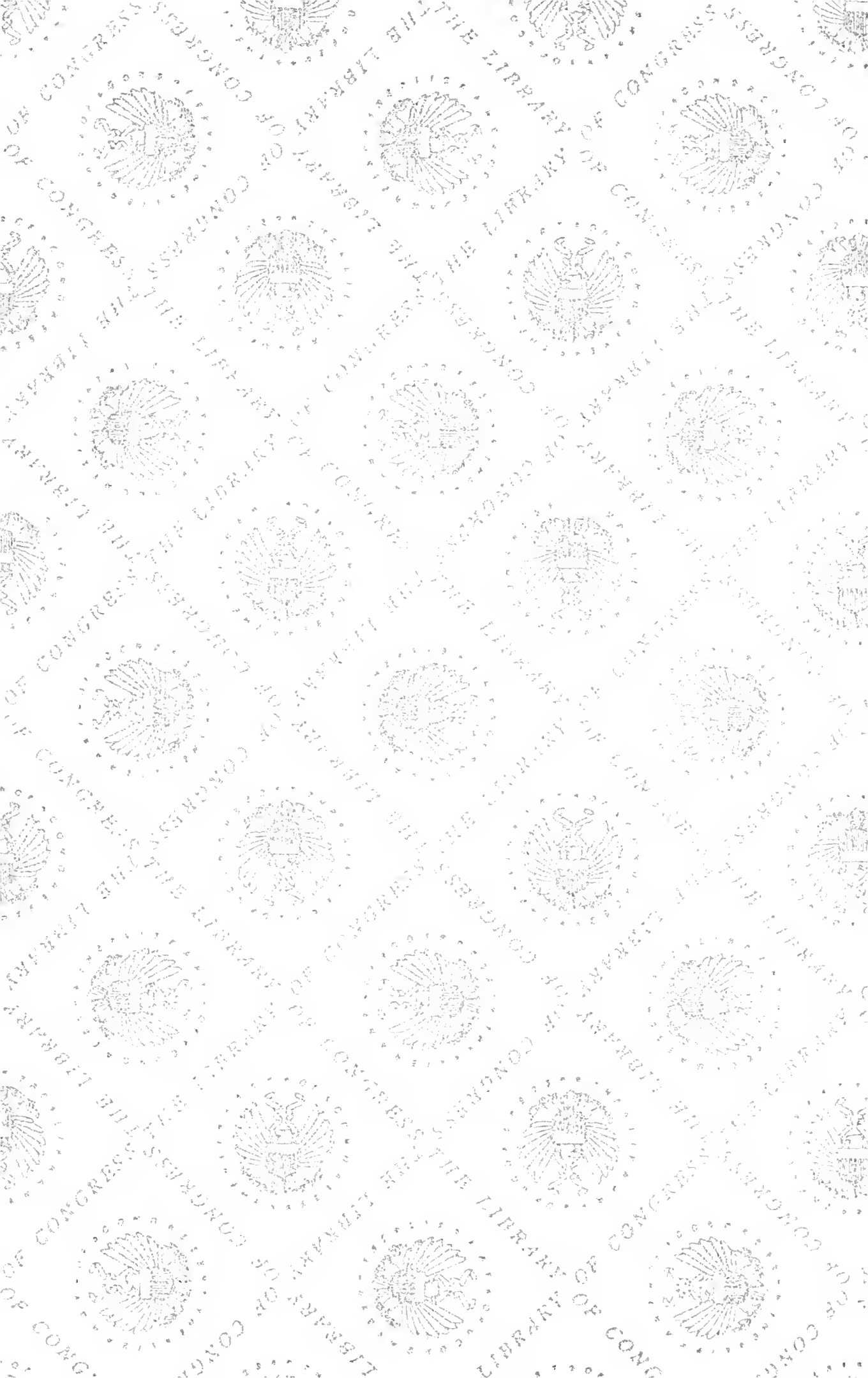


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NOTES IN HISTORY.

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ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT  
OF  
MODERN EUROPEAN NATIONS.

BY  
GEORGE WASHINGTON WARD, PH. D.,

*Professor of History in the Western Maryland College.*

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# ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN EUROPEAN NATIONS.

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## PART I.—THE TEUTONIC PEOPLES INVADE THE EMPIRE.

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### CHAPTER I.—DECLINE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. INTRODUCTORY.—Perhaps no better illustration of the law that cessation of progress is decline can be found than the Roman Empire. From the day that Rome began the subjugation of the Samnites and the acquisition of territory by conquest, Roman legions were almost continuously adding new lands, till in the time of Hadrian (117–138 A. D.) the boundaries of the Roman Empire extended from the Atlantic Ocean to the Euphrates (over 3,000 miles), and from Britain (Wall of Antoninus,) to the deserts of Africa (nearly 2,000 miles). (Tacitus, *Annales* 1, 2. Gibbons, end Ch. I.)

2. GREATEST EXTENT OF THE EMPIRE.—With the change from republic to empire, Rome changed also her policy. Augustus advised the Romans to cease from

conquest and devote themselves to the peaceful government of their world empire. Britain was the only province added during the first century. Then in the reign of Trajan (98–117 A. D.) Dacia (where?) was added. (Column of Trajan.) But with the conquest of the Parthians in the East by the same emperor, the boundaries of the empire reached their utmost limit. (Gibbon, Ch. II.)

3. FIRST LOSS OF TERRITORY.—The first act of Trajan's successor (Hadrian 117–138 A. D.) was to restore the independence of the Parthians. It was then a new thing for Rome to lose territory to her enemies; soon this became her continual and ever-increasing necessity. Thus Rome reached her climax under the Antonines. With the accession of Commodus, decline goes on apace. Moral depravity complete. (Gibbon, Ch. IV. Capes's *The Age of the Antonines*.)

4. WHAT WAS THE ROMAN EMPIRE.—An empire is, in theory, a confederation of kingdoms more or less independent, according as they are powerful enough to defy the empire or weak enough to be held by it in complete subjugation. This definition the world learned from Rome. Alexander might have taught the lesson 300 years earlier but what would have become an empire died in infancy at the death of its creator, no one being found powerful enough to hold the member-kingdoms in even nominal subjection. (Bryce's *Holy Roman Empire*, Chs. I, II.)



5. MEMBER-KINGDOMS OF ROME.—Among the kingdoms (provinces) over which the Roman Empire exercised authority—sometimes very feeble, sometimes almost complete—may be mentioned Spain, France (Gaul), England (Britain), Austria-Hungary as far as the Danube, Switzerland, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Syria, Persia, Egypt, Tunis, Tripoli, Algeria, and Morocco. Germany was never conquered by the Roman arms or Roman law, and but imperfectly subjected to the Roman Church. (Mommsen's *The Provinces*, &c., Emerton's *Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages*, Ch. I.)

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## CHAPTER II.—APPEARANCE OF THE TEUTONS.

1. THE TEUTONES AND THE CIMBRI, B. C. 102, 101.—See "Rome," Chapter XIX, Sec. 7.

2. CÆSAR AND THE TEUTONS.—About half a century after Marius had crushed the Teutones and Cimbri, who had probably wandered from the northern shores of Germany, the German chief so celebrated in Cæsar's writings crossed the Rhine into Gaul. Ariovistus had been invited over by the Sequani to aid them against the Ædui. Having performed this service well, Ariovistus declined to leave his new friends, and the Sequani in terror applied to Cæsar. Ariovistus was overthrown and soon died of a wound, but Cæsar was never able to gain a footing on the German side of the Rhine. Germans from this time greatly influenced by Rome. GERMAN SOLDIERS ENLIST IN THE ROMAN ARMIES.

3. THE BATTLE OF TEUTOBURG FOREST, 9 A. D.—Rome had repelled with ease the infrequent invasions made by the restless tribes from the unknown forests beyond the Rhine and the Danube. At last a systematic attempt was to be made to conquer Germany. It was Rome's turn to invade. Her territory had never before been invaded by any people that did not sooner or later pay for its insolence by submission to her. Augustus sent Tiberius to subdue the Germans. The attempt had nearly succeeded when Tiberius died. Then arose the great German leader, Hermann, who once more united the quarreling tribes, led the Roman general, Varus, into an ambush in the Teutoburg Forest (where?), destroyed his three legions almost to a man, and saved the German peoples forever from Roman domination. (Creasy, ch. V.)

4. INVASIONS UNDER GERMANICUS, 14–16 A. D.—The Romans soon raised other legions, and in 14 A. D. Germanicus was sent to push the invasion. The next year, Thusnelda, wife of Hermann, was captured and sent a prisoner to Rome. Again the young chief sought the captors of his wife in Teutoburg Forest, but this time Hermann was defeated. Germanicus lost so heavily in the two victories which he gained the next year that he was compelled to leave Germany. End of Roman invasion. Romans steadily gain influence and some territory east of the Rhine.

5. GERMANS BECOME ACQUAINTED WITH ROME.—Communication between the Romans and the Teutons

constantly increased, especially by way of the numerous military stations and trading posts established by the Romans on the frontier. Many flourishing German towns of the present day owe their origin to such Roman establishments. Number of Germans in the Roman armies steadily increased. (Cæsar's Commentaries).

6. THE MARCOMANNI RETURN THE COMPLIMENT, 166–180 A. D.—It was now the turn of the Germans to invade. During the reign of Marcus Aurelius the powerful Marcomanni made war on the Empire for thirteen years. It was during his camp life in these wars that Marcus Aurelius wrote his immortal “Meditations.” (“Rome,” Chap. XXIV., 7.) He died before the frontier was secured, and his worthless son, Commodus, bought off the Germans with tribute. With this act begins the conflict which ends in the territorial supremacy of the barbarians—the barbarian conquest of Roman *territory*, the *institutional* supremacy of Rome. (Gibbon, Ch. III.)

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### CHAPTER III.—THE GERMANS.

1. THE “GERMANIA.”—We are introduced to the Germans in their native forests by Cæsar. About 150 years later Tacitus wrote his “Treatise on the Situation, Manners, and Inhabitants of Germany.” (Read his treatise: Harper's *Tacitus*, II, 286. 25 pp). In spite of the severe criticisms of this work, the Germania, with a few reasonable qualifications, must be accepted as a correct

picture of German life and institutions at the end of the first century of our era.

2. GERMANY.—Germany is pretty nearly a natural division. With the ocean on the north, the Rhine on the west, the Alps and Danube on the south, it was only in the east that Germany could gain or lose very much territory. Rome proved unable to break these natural barriers behind which the Germans have held their position from the earliest times. Germany's protracted and desperate effort to do so ended in complete failure—and worse: the successful unification of both Germany and Italy was delayed more than 600 years, having been accomplished only one generation ago. (Chap. XX, 6.)

3. THE GERMANS.—(a) The name (from *Wehr mann*, warrior (?), first adopted by a small tribe to terrify its enemies, afterwards spread to the whole race (*Germania*, 2). Germans rarely intermarried with any other races, hence their distinct type: "eyes stern and blue, ruddy hair; large bodies, powerful in sudden exertions, but impatient of toil and labor, least of all capable of sustaining thirst and heat. (Ch. IV.) (b) Elected a king by raising him on a shield. Women had great influence. Important matters settled in meeting of whole community. All business done under arms. Leader disgraced if surpassed in valor. (c) Pure family life; "almost singly among the barbarians, they content themselves with one wife." "The wife does not bring a dowry to her husband, but receives one from him." "Men and women are alike unacquainted with clandestine

correspondence." "Adultery is extremely rare ; its punishment is instant." "Late marriages insisted upon—scandalous to marry before age of twenty." (Cæsar's *Gallie Wars*, VI, 21.) (d) No distinction between free and slave children. "They lie together amidst the same cattle, upon the same ground, till age separates, and valor marks out the free born." "As soon as they rise from sleep, which they usually protract till late in the day, they bathe, usually in warm water, as cold weather chiefly prevails there. After bathing they take their meal, each on a distinct seat, and at a separate table. Then they proceed, armed, to business ; and not less frequently to convivial parties, in which it is no disgrace to pass days and nights, without intermission, in drinking. The frequent quarrels that arise among them when intoxicated, seldom terminate in abusive language, but more frequently in blood." (e) "Their funerals are without parade. The only circumstance to which they attend is to burn the bodies of eminent persons with some particular kind of wood. The arms of the deceased, and sometimes his horse, are given to the flames. The tomb is a mound of turf." (f) Among the Catti valor is so much admired that they do not shave the beard or trim the hair till they have proved their manhood by slaying an enemy in battle. Some wear an iron ring or chain till they merit liberty by slaying an enemy. (g) Tacitus scouts the stories current among the Germans that two of their tribes, the Hellusii and the Oxionæ, had "human faces, with the bodies and limbs of wild beasts," and many other like fables. (Emerton, Ch. II. Gibbon, Ch. IX.)

## CHAPTER IV.—FROM COMMODUS TO THE GREAT MIGRATIONS.

1. POWER OF THE ARMY.—From the accession of the dissolute Commodus, the power of the army rapidly increased. The army had been the foundation of the empire; it was rapidly becoming the empire itself. Upon the assassination of Commodus the Prætorians offer the empire for sale. From this time the army becomes the real power, the Emperor only the instrument. Septimus Severus (193 A. D.) led the army on the frontiers, leaving the Prefect of the Prætorians to rule in Rome. The chief, supported by the legions, was nominal emperor—title, *Imperator*. (Gibbon, Ch. V., VI., VII.)

2. RENEWED INVASIONS.—About fifty years later the Germans were again pressing into the Empire in considerable numbers, the Franks in Gaul, the Goths (now first known to the Romans) on the Danube, and the Alamanni in Italy itself. They were driven back now, but under Aurelian (270–275 A. D.) Rome was stripped of Dacia, and the Teutons pushed as far south as the Metarus. Claudius Gothicus. (Gibbon, Ch. VIII., X., XI.)

3. DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE.—With the accession of Diocletian (284 A. D.), the old republican offices lose all significance and the Empire is modeled after the oriental despotism. Now begins the separation between Rome and the East, issuing in the discredit of the pagan religions, the establishment of a new religion and Empire

at Constantinople, and the complete subjection of Rome to the Prætorians. (Gibbon, XII.)

4. FALL OF ROME.—Henceforth the Emperor in the West is a puppet; the general of the army rules Italy. If Rome fell this was her fall. The East had ever been the center of civilization; when Rome ceased to be the military center of the world, therefore, “her fall was deep and rapid. She ceased to be mistress even of the West, and sank, politically at least, into the rank of a mere provincial city.” (Merivale.) (Gibbon, Ch. XIV., XVII., XVIII., XIX.)

5. DECLINE OF MILITARY POWER.—The seat of Empire had been changed because Constantinople had become not only the center of civilization but was also the natural defence of the Empire against the Persians or the Goths. Under this false notion of security Rome gave herself up to luxury and ease. From this time the army was composed chiefly of barbarians. Rome henceforth supported by barbarians under Roman institutions and forms against barbarians under Teutonic institutions and forms. Separation of East and West complete by 364 A. D.—Valentinian I. Emperor in the West, Valens in the East. The Romans with difficulty hold in check the Germans from the north. (Gibbon, XXII., XXIII., XXIV., XXV.)

6. THE PAPACY.—On the ruins of the old imperial power the church rapidly built up the papacy. Rome rarely saw the emperor; she was in daily contact with

the Bishop (called Pope from about 400 A. D.) Gibbon, XV., XVI., XX., XXI.)

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## CHAPTER V.—THE GREAT MIGRATIONS, 375 A. D.

1. CAUSES.—(a) Hunger. It has been estimated that people in the pastoral stage require for subsistence an average of 50,000 acres per individual. But whether from necessity or not, the Teutons of the fourth century appear to have been a restless, roving, warlike people. With such habits, a rapidly increasing population, and scant food supply from crops, it may be that the bountifully fed empire became an attraction too strong to be resisted. (b) Migratory Wave. Perhaps it would be difficult to say what sets in motion the first tribe; but after that, each tribe driven out in turn drives out another. This wavelike motion will probably continue till a tribe either finds unoccupied land or a weaker tribe which may be subjugated and its lands appropriated. (“Eastern Civilizations and Greece,” Chap. VIII., 3–5.) (c) Plunder. The Goths had perhaps learned enough of the empire to understand and crave its wealth. Among the strongest incentives to war in ancient times was plunder. As compared with the poverty-stricken tribes of the Russian and German plains, the old and wealthy civilization of the empire offered a prize not to be neglected.

2. SITUATION OF THE BARBARIANS IN THE FOURTH CENTURY.—(Consult map, pp. 24, 25, Thatcher and



Schwill.) The Alani (probably Teutonic) lay on the Black Sea, the East Goths came next in southwestern Russia, then the West Goths in the Danube bow—eastern Hungary—with the Vandals to the northwest, *i. e.*, in southern Germany. Far to the east and just entering Europe lay the Huns.

3. THE HUNS.—A Mongolian people whose origin is not certainly known. They appear to have crossed Asia all the way from China. (Cf. DeQuincey's *Revolt of the Tartars*.) They are described as the most repulsive creatures of that dark and repulsive age. Small of stature, hideously ugly—even to deformity—living on horse flesh (whether killed or found dead mattered not), spending nearly all their time on horse-back, and stopping at no cruelty in war, the Huns might well be called by the priests of a little later time "the Scourge of God." (Gibbon, Ch. XXVI. Ammianus Marcellinus.)

4. THE WEST GOTHs ATTACKED BY THE HUNS.—For more than a century the restless barbarians north of the Danube had been making forays into the eastern empire. During this long time it seems that they must have discovered not only the wealth of the plunder offered by the empire, but also its inherent weakness. "The fall of the Roman Empire may justly be dated from the reign of Valens" (364–378 A. D.). It was in this reign that the storm so long gathering on the northern horizon burst in all its destructive fury upon the institutions and civilization of the empire. The Huns crossing the Volga, conquered the Alani, and all

together fell upon the East Goths who, more in terror than in attack, burst into the territory of the West Goths. These, on account of the pressure from the north, could only move in one direction—into the empire.

5. CROSSING THE DANUBE, 376 A. D.—The Goths sent an embassy to Valens begging for land. It was granted on the hard conditions that the barbarians (1) give up their arms, and (2) give up their children to be held as hostages in Asia Minor and educated by the Romans. (Gibbon, III, 31.) The asking was a mere form, the granting a necessity. Though the Danube was a mile wide and the crossing effected with great difficulty, probably not less than a million barbarians—women, children, and slaves included—entered the empire at this time.

6. BATTLE OF ADRIANOPLE, 378 A. D.—The conditions were soon violated. Roman officers meddling and Gothic warriors resenting. Soon a general uprising. At Adrianople (where?) the Goths were met by Valens. The Goths were victorious. Valens was slain, and the Empire was henceforth little more than a name. The so-called Emperor, Theodosius I., made peace with the Goths and absolute destruction was postponed indefinitely.

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## CHAPTER VI.—THE GOTHS.

1. WHO WERE THE GOTHS?—Teutonic—originally from Scandinavia (?) First mentioned in history about the time of Alexander the Great. Tacitus knew them as the Gothones (Germania, ch. 43,) living not far from the Baltic Sea. (Not the Gothoni, a non-Germanic people living farther south.) When or how they reached the shores of the Black Sea where they next appear over two centuries later is not known.

2. EARLY HISTORY OF THE GOTHS.—Early in the third century they invaded Dacia (where?) then a Roman province. From that time the Empire was never secure. The Goths soon built a fleet (500 vessels?) with which they patrolled the Ægean Sea, took Piræus, and threatened to make themselves masters of the East. Before the end of the century (272) they had driven the Romans out of Dacia. For the next hundred years they gave little trouble, but by 367 they have been stirred up by the Huns and soon after enter the Empire by permission, 376 A. D. It was about this time that the division into the East Goths and West Goths became generally recognized. (*De Rebus Geticis* of Jordanes. Art. "Goths," by Freeman, in *Encyc. Brit.* X., 846–854.)

3. JORDANES. Time of Justinian—middle of the sixth century. Historian of the Goths. He was secretary to the chief of a barbarian confederation on the lower Danube. Later he became a monk. Spent his

declining years in Italy, but was not bishop of Ravenna as so often stated. His most important work—a sort of compendium of Cassiodorus's *The Origin and Actions of the Goths*, now lost, is known as the *De Rebus Geticis*. The oldest known manuscript of this book perished by fire in the house of Professor Mommsen. Jordanes is much of a sycophant, enrrying favor with both Romans and Goths by praising first one, then the other. (Art. "Jordanes," Encyc. Brit.)

4. ULFILAS (WULFILAS, LITTLE WOLF), 311–381 A. D. The apostle to the Goths. Converted to Christianity. Made a bishop. Translated the Bible (except the Samuels and the Kings, Why?) into Gothic. This Gothic Bible is the oldest writing in the Teutonic language. Hence Ulfilas has been called "the father of Teutonic literature." Ulfilas had also great political influence among the Goths which he exerted for Rome. Through his Bible and his preaching Christianity spread rapidly through most of the Teutonic tribes before they entered Rome. It is to this fact more than any other that we owe the preservation of so much of the Roman civilization as survived the invasions which broke up the Empire to found on its ruins the modern nations of Europe. (Waitz, *Das Leben des Ulfilas*. Art. "Ulfilas," Encyc. Brit.)

5. THE GOTHIC BIBLE OF ULFILAS. Till the ninth century this sacred and national work accompanied the Goths in all their migrations. But from that period

nothing was known of it beyond what was found stated in the ancient ecclesiastical accounts, until the end of the eleventh century when Arnold Mercator discovered in the Abbey of Werden the gospels of Ulfilas. Then the manuscript found its way to Prague, where it remained till 1648, when the Swedes took it as a spoil to Upsal, where it still remains in the University Library, under the name of Codex Argenteus (because written in silver letters on purple parchment). In 1818 further remnants of the work—a great portion of the letters of St. Paul—were discovered by A. Mai and Castiglioni, on palimpsests, (what?) in a Lombardian monastery, which, added to a few minor fragments, bring the New Testament somewhat near completion. “But hardly anything—except a few passages from Ezra and Nehemiah—has survived of the Old Testament.”

6. ARIANISM.—The form of Christianity which Ulfilas adopted and taught was called Arianism, from its founder Arius. Arius had been first deacon, then presbyter in the church of Alexandria, Egypt. He studied and expounded the Bible. In a conference, Alexander, bishop of Alexandria, remarked that the Trinity contained one essence only. Arius retorted that such a conception was impossible. From this chance conversation matters grew worse and worse till Arius declared that the Son was not co-equal with the Father (Homoiousious, *same* substance) but that he was only the highest of God's finite creatures (Homoiousious, *like* substance), and that the Holy Ghost was not God. This idea of

Jesus as only the leader of men powerfully affected the warlike barbarians when presented to them by Ulfilas, who appears to have been an Arian. This little quarrel of two Alexandrian churchmen had a mighty effect upon the future course of the world's history. Was it responsible for the Papacy? For the division of the Church into Eastern and Western? (Gibbon, Ch. XXXVII, p. 540-548.) Was John Milton an Arian? (Art. "Arius," Encyc. Brit. Gibbon, XXVII, XXVIII. Emerton's *Introd.* III.)

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## PART II. BEGINNINGS OF MODERN NATIONS.

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### CHAPTER VII.—THE WEST GOTHs.

1. THEODOSIUS, 376-395 A. D.—Last to rule over the empire of the Cæsars. At his death the empire was given to his sons—Arcadius in the East, Honorius in the West. Theodosius was a Spaniard by birth, received a military education under his father who was for years the ablest general of the West. Made Emperor of the East by Gratian after the defeat and death of Valens. Theodosius beat the West Goths by stirring them up to internal war. Next he led an army of Alans, Goths and Huns against the West. The usurper, Maximus, with an army of Gauls and Germans, was defeated by Theodosius with West Goths and Huns. Thus had the empire already become barbarian though still retaining the old forms and ideas. It is to the son of Theodosius the Great that we owe the Theodosian code.

2. STILICHO.—A Vandal; general of Theodosius the Great. Sent to Persia on a diplomatic mission, which was performed with honor to the state. Married the adopted daughter of Theodosius. Made protector of the two sons of Theodosius. One of these, Honorius, married (398) Stilicho's daughter, and (408) his sister. Stilicho was the last, if not the greatest, of the barbarian

generals who had been the support of the Empire for a century and a-half. Soon after the death of Theodosius he defeated Alaric and the West Goths, driving them out of Peloponnesus. A little later Alaric entered Italy, but was again met by Stilicho, who defeated the West Goths at Pollentia (402), Verona (403), and the East Goths under Radagaisus at Fiesole (405). Then the foolish Honorius listened to charges of treason, and the bravest of Rome's barbarian generals was politically murdered in violation of a sacred oath.

3. ALARIC.—One of the ablest of the earlier invaders of Italy was Alaric, who became king of the West Goths 395 A. D., soon after the death of Theodosius. The Goths had been quiet for near a dozen years, but Alaric at once headed a general uprising. We have seen (Sec. 2) how he was driven back by Stilicho from both Greece and Italy. But the Gothic appetite for plunder had grown too keen for restraint since their taste of Roman wealth, and Stilicho was scarcely dead before Alaric was leading a new army into Italy. This time he marched straight on Rome.

4. SACK OF ROME BY ALARIC, 410 A. D.—Alaric complained that the Romans had not kept their engagements, and, after crossing the Po and plundering several cities in northern Italy, he laid siege to Rome 409. Ambassadors asked his terms. They were too hard. "The closer hay is pressed the easier it is mown," said Alaric, and soon the starving people had to promise a large treasure and extensive lands in north Italy. Alaric



withdrew. The simple Honorius, who had fled to Ravenna, refused assent. Siege renewed. Alaric's moderation. More bad faith. City taken by storm (410) and given over to six days of plunder. Alaric appoints an Emperor in place of Honorius.

5. WEST GOTHS ESTABLISHED IN SPAIN.—From ruined Rome Alaric moved southwards, but was prevented from invading Africa by the destruction of his fleet. His death. Burial in the channel of the Busento (?). Succeeded by his brother-in-law, Athaulf, who marries the Emperor's sister, Placidia. Peace concluded. Southern Gaul and Spain given to the West Goths on condition of driving out the Alani, the Suevi, and the Vandals. Founding of West Gothic kingdom, 415 A. D. (Gibbon, XXIX–XXXII.)

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## CHAPTER VIII.—SPAIN IN THE MIDDLE AGE.

1. FIRST OF THE MODERN NATIONS ESTABLISHED ON ROMAN TERRITORY.—With the establishment of the West Goths in southern Gaul and northern Spain the ancient history of the third great peninsula of southern Europe closes and a new period begins. The capital of the West Goths was at Toulouse (location?) with Toledo (where?) as the Spanish center. From the first the dependence of the West Goths upon the Empire was little more than nominal; by the sixth century Spain was fairly consolidated and independent. In 711 A. D. the Mohammedans (Chap. XVIII, 5) overran the penin-

sula, crossed the Pyrenees, and for the last time threatened to fasten Eastern Civilization and ideas upon the individualistic, aggressive West. (*Ibid.* 1. Irving's *Conquest of Spain*.) The struggle with the Moors in Spain went forward actively for five hundred years, and they were not finally driven out (Granada) till the year in which Columbus discovered America. (Irving's *Conquest of Granada. The Alhambra*.) Portugal about 1000 A. D. won independence through good service against the Moors. From that time the rest of Spain came gradually to recognize the two kingdoms of Castile and Aragon. The union of these was prepared by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella (1469) (Prescott's *Ferdinand and Isabella*), and Spain soon became the foremost nation of the world. Her decline may be dated from the defeat of the Armada, 1588. (Creasy, X. Irving's *Spanish Voyages*.) The world is indebted to Spain for much of the learning of the Middle Age, especially in medicine, possibly even for the university spirit (Salamanca?) and for the discovery of America. On the other hand Spain gave the world the Inquisition (Lea's *History of the Inquisition*), and her downfall may be credited to her systematic efforts to crush every spark of individual liberty. (Art. "Spain," Part II, *Encyc. Brit.* XXII, 304-346. Good historical map opp. p. 304.)<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In 1588 Spain represented the Latin spirit—suppression of individual liberty; England, the Teutonic spirit—liberty of thought and action. Note in the attitude of Spain and the United States now (1898) these two principles once more in conflict.

2. THE VANDALS IN EUROPE, 100–429.—From the shores of the Baltic (time of Tacitus) the Vandals moved southward into Bohemia, and finally, after many defeats, settled as Roman subjects in Pannonia (region between the Drave and the Danube). Of Teutonic stock, closely related to the Goths. In 406, time of the weak Honorius, the Vandals invaded Gaul. (One of the charges against Stilicho, Honorius' advisor, was that being himself a Vandal, he had winked at this invasion. Chap. VII. sec. 2). In Gaul they suffered defeat and severe loss by the Franks, and in 409 made their way across the Pyrenees. Here, for twenty years, they waged continual war with Romans or Goths indifferently, and in 429 crossed to Africa, leaving no more than their name to mark one of the most delightful districts of Spain (V) Andalusia.

3. THE VANDALS IN AFRICA, ONE CENTURY. 429–534 A. D.—Invited to Africa by Boniface, the Governor, Geiseric had no sooner acted upon the invitation than he was besought to depart. Instead of doing so Geiseric besieged Hippo, which fell after a year of stubborn resistance. Carthage was left to Boniface, but ten years after (439) Geiseric, without declaring war, took Carthage, and Africa became a Vandal state.

4. "VANDALISM."—Vandals appear to have been a restless, marauding sort of people (nation of bandits?). In 405, in response to the invitation of Eudoxia, widow of Valentinian, Geiseric sailed up the Tiber (first Teutonic

people to foster a navy? But see Chap. VI., 2.), took Rome, "and for fourteen days, in a calm and business-like manner, emptied it of all its movable wealth" (including the vessels brought by Titus from the Temple at Jerusalem?). The common report of their wanton destruction of temples and art treasures is false. Our word, "Vandalism," probably arose from the severity of the persecution of Roman Catholics waged by the Arian (meaning?) Vandals. This deadly persecution formed the chief business of the remaining eighty years of Vandal history. In 533, Justinian (Chap. XI., 2), the Eastern emperor, sent his great general, Belisarius (*Ibid.*), to end the cruelties of the Vandals. Their king, Gelimer, was captured, and with great numbers of his subjects taken to Constantinople. The Vandals disappear from history. "Justinian sowed that Mahommed might reap." (Art. "Vandals," *Encyc. Brit.*)

5. BURGUNDY, 443-534.—About the middle of the third century the Burgundians passed from the Vistula and Oder to the Rhine and Main. District about Worms. The Roman general, Aëtius, moved them (443) to the Rhone south of Lake Geneva. Almost without a history during its brief century of independent existence. Burgundy disappeared from the maps, having become (534) part of the Frankish Empire. (Emerton's *Introd.* ch. IV.)

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**CHAPTER IX.—ATTILA AND THE HUNS.**

1. **ATTILA, KING OF THE HUNS.**—Chap. V., 3.) Born probably about 406 A. D. Became King of the Huns 434 A. D. Killed his brother Bleda in order to make himself supreme. He ruled over a motley host of many tribes. His dominions are said to have extended at one time from the Rhine to China. Soon after becoming king he invaded the Eastern Empire, but was defeated in three battles. He laid waste the whole country around Constantinople (445) and Theodosius had to make terms. Plot to assassinate Attila. Plot discovered. Christian Emperor upbraided by the heathen for want of honor. About to renew war. Attila finally moved west instead.

2. **INVASION OF THE HUNS.**—It seems a little remarkable that so wild a man ruling so barbarous a people should have dreamed, as had Alexander, Cæsar, and others before him, Karl the Great, and Napoleon after him, of a world empire. Yet he did. Under his leadership the Huns had soon pushed as far as Pesth on the Danube. Declining Rome bought peace with a heavy tribute. Honoria, a Roman princess, offered to marry Attila. Meanwhile he prepared to push still to the West.

3. **BATTLE OF CHALONS. “CATALAUNIAN FIELDS.”** 451 A. D.—(Time of the English invasions of Britain.) The precise location of the battle field is not known, but it was not far from Chalons in the northeastern Gaul. (See Map, Emerton's *Introd.*) The Roman forces in

Gaul were commanded by Aëtius. They had the powerful West Goths under Theodoric for allies. Attila crossed the Rhine near its mouth, passed Paris then an insignificant village on a little island in the Seine, and moved on to Orleans on the Loire. Here he was turned back. Aëtius and Theodoric followed. Near Chalons Attila turned and fought. From three o'clock in the afternoon till dark the battle raged. Great numbers fell on both sides. Neither seemed to have won a victory, but in the morning it was discovered that Attila had continued his flight. Has the battle of Chalons been greatly exaggerated both as to its fierceness and its remote effects? (Creasy, ch. VI.)

4. VENICE FOUNDED.—Turning southward Attila entered Italy 452, overran Lombardy, and took Aquileia (where?). It is to this event that Venice owes its origin. Fleeing from the fierceness of the Huns many of the people found refuge in the islands of the northern Adriatic, laying there the foundations of one of the most important cities of the Middle Ages.

5. WHAT BECAME OF THE HUNS.—Attila conquered all Italy north of the Apennines. Rome seemed sure to fall into his hands when there came one day to Attila's camp the venerable Roman bishop (Pope?) Leo at the head of an embassy to beg for mercy. What effect this strange embassy had upon Attila is not known, but one of the most inexplicable things in history now happened. With the certain and easy conquest of all Italy with its

wealth and power in full view, Attila turned from Italy, leaving "nothing but the terror of his name." He was long remembered as the "Scourge of God," but later German legends make a great hero of him. Within a year after leaving Italy Attila "died like a dog, . . . in drunken sleep." With the fall of Attila the Huns are scattered, to be known no more in history as a nation. (Emerton's *Introd.*, Ch. IV.)

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## CHAPTER X.—THE EAST GOTHS. ITALY.

1. EAST GOTHS, 376–493 A. D. When the West Goths were admitted by Valens the like application of the East Goths was refused. (Chap. V, 4.) Hence they made frequent incursions into Roman territory. Attempting to cross the Danube in 386 A. D., they were attacked by the Romans and many thousands are said to have perished either by the sword or the river. Henceforth they were ready to join any force hostile to Rome. Thus they fought at Chalons with Attila and his Huns against their brethren, the West Goths, who had sided with the Romans. (Chap. IX, 3.) Under Theodoric, the greatest of their kings (there was another Theodoric king of the West Goths a little earlier. Chap. IX, 3), 475 A. D., they again attacked the Eastern Empire. Received some of the richest provinces. Planned with Zeno (488) an attack on Odovaker ("Rome." Chap. XXV, 5) in Italy. Odovaker defeated and slain (by Theodoric's own hand?) and the kingdom of the East Goths established in Italy.

2. THEODORIC, THE EAST GOTH.—Born near present site of Vienna. Greatest in the line of the great Amali. At age of eight he was given as a hostage to Leo, emperor of the East. Educated by the Romans at Constantinople. Learned war, scorned science. Refused to learn to write his name. Made his mark—literally as well as figuratively. Returned to his people at age of eighteen. Led a successful expedition against Belgrade (Singidunum). Became king 475 A. D. Then came his fourteen years of war against Zeno, and the invasion of Italy (488).

3. EAST GOTHS IN ITALY, 493–553 A. D. With the overthrow of Odovaker (493) Theodoric, the East Goth, became king of Italy. Recall the establishment of a Teutonic nation—West Goths—in Spain 415 A. D. (Chap. VII, 5.) Now the very seat itself of the nation which had endured more than 1200 years is occupied by a barbarian nation. (In what sense barbarians?) Theodoric himself was a Roman by education (Sec. 2,) and he did all in his power to preserve Roman civilization. The East Goths made not Rome but Ravenna (where?) their capital. Peace. Prosperity. Corn exported instead of imported. Religious liberty. But Theodoric had Boetius, author of “The Consolations of Philosophy,” put to death—suspected of plotting to restore Rome to the Eastern Empire.

4. WHAT BECAME OF THE EAST GOTHS.—After the death of Theodoric (526) the Roman Catholic and Arian faiths clashed. Besides Justinian had come to the throne



of the Eastern Empire in 527. Justinian dreamed of restoring the empire to its original boundaries. The Vandals were the first to fall before his general, Belisarius. (Chap. VIII, 3.) Belisarius then crossed to Italy, received the support of all the discontented, and strove for five years without success to drive the East Goths from Italy. But Theodoric's efforts to weld Romans and Goths had failed. Rome had been too long without an emperor, and the Bishop of Rome (Pope?) had become too powerful to submit tamely to a people regarded as barbarians and—what was far worse, heretics. Still took hard fighting when Belisarius returned after several years to drive out the Goths. It was not finally done till Narses hired other Germans with whose aid he defeated the Goths in 553. The East Goths soon disappeared from history. Italy was nominally united with the empire, but was practically independent. Growth of the power of the Pope.

5. THE LOMBARDS IN ITALY, 568 A. D.—Narses was given the title of Exarch, and from Ravenna he ruled Italy for the empire. Justinian's successors angered Narses, who, in revenge, invited the Lombards into Italy. Accordingly, under Alboin, their king, the Lombards (Langobardi, long beards), took Pavia after a three years' siege, made it their capital, established themselves in the Po Valley (Lombardy to this day) and rapidly overran the rest of Italy, which they governed by Lombard dukes. The Lombards were at first ruder than the Goths, but they gradually improved, gave up

Arianism for the orthodox faith and systematized their laws for the use of the courts. By the middle of the eighth century, when the Popes first appealed to the Franks, the Lombards had become a powerful nation. (Emerton's *Introd.* ch. V., VI. Paulus Diaconus, *History of the Lombards*. Gibbon, XXXIX., XLII., XLIII.)

6. ITALY had thus early become the football of the nations. Owing to the acquisition of temporal power by the Popes, it remained disunited almost to our own day (1861), Garibaldi, Cavour, Victor Emmanuel. The papacy appears still to yearn for temporal power, and the future of Italy cannot yet be regarded as fully assured.

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## CHAPTER XI.—THE EASTERN EMPIRE AND THE FRANKS.

1. DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.—(Review.)—Empire first divided by Diocletian (284–305 A. D.) Eastern capital Nicomedia (where?); Western capital, Milan (Midiolanum) (when did Rome fall?). Constantine (306–337) made Byzantium the real seat of the whole empire. After Constantine a period of anarchy. United for a short time under Theodosius (379–395) the Empire was finally divided, at his death, into the Empire of the East and the Empire of the West, 395 A. D. Twenty years before this the Goths had begun their

invasions in earnest, and we have seen what became of the Empire of the West. (Chap. X, 1.)

2. JUSTINIAN. 527–565 A. D.—Justinian was born in the wilds of what is now Bulgaria, “of an obscure race of barbarians.” His uncle, Justin, had traveled on foot to Constantinople, had risen rapidly—Tribune, Count, General, Senator, Chief of the Guards, and finally, at the age of sixty-eight, Emperor. Justinian was brought to Constantinople, educated and made his uncle’s heir. Justinian, shrewd and ambitious, got himself made Emperor before his uncle’s death. Justinian was not truly great; the morals of his age cannot be depicted in decent company; his wife, Theodora, had been one of the most depraved women that ever disgraced the pages of history. (See Gibbon, ch. XL., pp. 49–51), though her life was reformed before she became queen. Reconquest of the West by Belisarius and Narses. (Chap. X, 4, 5). Justinian “was neither beloved in his life nor regretted in his death.”

3. THE “BLUES AND THE GREENS.”—Names of the two political parties at Constantinople. These names had come from the Roman circus, where the charioteers were distinguished by *blue* and *green* liveries. The popular effect was the same as that of college or class colors. Whoever attended the games, even the Emperor himself, was either a “blue” or a “green.” This was all reproduced in the Hippodrome at Constantinople. Here, however, at least from the time of Justinian, the Em-

perors sided with the Blues. So violent was the hatred between these parties that murders were frequent. Just before Justinian's reign the "Greens" had concealed stones and daggers in baskets of fruit and massacred at one time 3,000 "Blues" at a festival. These factions became permanent and it is chiefly to their violence that the final overthrow of the Empire by the Turks (1453) is to be attributed. (Gibbon, ch. XL., pp. 56-64.)

4. ROMAN LAW.—Notwithstanding his many other services, it is probably for his success in preserving the Roman law that later ages have been most indebted to Justinian. The "Laws of Justinian," so called, are to this day a great storehouse for the student of jurisprudence. Justinian himself was both a lawyer and a legislator, yet he did not make all or any considerable number of the laws called by his name. He did not even make the compilation himself. What he did accomplish—through Tribonian and others learned in the law—was the codification, and hence the preservation of all the laws of Rome in force in his time. Unfortunately, after this several older codes—Ulpian, Paulus, Gaius—fell into disuse and have been lost.

5. CODE OF JUSTINIAN.—This was a collection in twelve books of all the laws of Rome then in force, made by Tribonian, who did not scruple to alter or adapt, as the need of his own age required. A second edition soon appeared containing a large number of laws and edicts made by Justinian himself.

6. THE PANDECTS, OR DIGEST.—Celebrated collection of “opinions, explanations and decisions” which served in Justinian’s time as precedents. Made also by Tribonian, who, with fifteen assistants, was engaged three years in making a great collection of extracts, in fifty books from thirty-nine writers. Of these, one-third of the entire work is from Ulpian alone, while Paulus and Papinian come next in importance. “By far the most precious monument of the legal genius of the Romans.”

7. THE INSTITUTES OF JUSTINIAN.—A treatise on the general principles of the Roman law. This was a text-book prepared also by Tribonian, with the assistance of the Professor of law in the University of Constantinople and the Professor of Law in the great law school at Beyrout.

NOTE.—There was a later unauthorized collection of contributions called the *Codex Novellae*. (Gibbon, Ch. XL., XLI., XLIV. For the Germanic ideas of Law, see Emerton’s *Introd.* Ch. VIII.)

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## CHAPTER XII.—EARLY HISTORY OF FRANCE.

1. GAUL.—“The name given by the Romans to the country lying between the Rhine and the Pyrenees.” As early as B. C. 600 Greeks had settled Massilia. (Where?) They had first called the whole of Southwestern Europe “Celtice,” later “Gallia.” Gaul is formally introduced to the world in Cæsar’s “Gallic Wars,” though fifty

years earlier a portion of Gaul lying on the Rhone had been made a Roman province. The Gauls imposed their manners and customs upon a subject race (Iberians?) just as they in turn were themselves thoroughly Romanized. Cæsar's conquest (B. C. 58–50) the beginning of this process. After Cæsar little attention paid to the country till the Empire was established. Gaul was then divided into four provinces, which, in the fourth century, were further divided into seventeen.

2. INVASIONS OF THE FRANKS.—(See map—Encyc. Brit. IX., 723—and notice that the Salian (sala, an inheritance?) Franks lie west of the Rhone near its mouth, and the Ripuarian (bankmen, or bank defenders,) Franks also west of the Rhine farther inland.) In 241 A. D. the name “Franks” first appears in “a rough barrack song”—

“Mille Sarmatas, mille *Francos*, semel et semel occidimus;  
Mille, mille, mille, mille, mille, Persas quaerimus!”

It is known that Franks lived also on the German side of the Rhine. They are soon at war with Rome; defeated by Julian (358 A. D.); many take service in the Roman armies, and by the end of the fourth century they had made Northern Gaul practically independent. They as often fought for the Romans as against them, however, (e. g., the battle of Chalons), till under Chlodwig (Clovis—481–511) an independent Frankish kingdom was established. Chlodwig founded the Merwing (Merovingian) house—the beginning of France proper. (Guizot's *France*, I., 108.)

3. CHLODWIG.—It must be remembered that the Franks were Germanic, and Chlodwig was a German in the same sense that the conquerors of Britain were Germans. Chlodwig was only fifteen years old when, by the death of his father, he became king of the Salian Franks.

4. THE VASE OF SOISSON.—Soon after Chlodwig ascended the throne of the Franks he defeated the West Goths, whose kingdom extended far up into France (See Map, T. and S., pp. 72, 73), and took Soisson. In a marauding expedition they had taken from the church of Rheims “a vase of marvelous size and beauty.” The bishop, who knew Chlodwig slightly, sent to ask the return at least of this vase. The messenger was invited to Soisson, where the division of spoil would take place, and was promised that when the lots had given Chlodwig the vase it should be returned. The booty was piled in the midst, and Chlodwig asked, in addition to his lot, the vase, which was cheerfully granted by his warriors. Then a silly, jealous soldier struck the vase with his axe, crying, “Thou shalt have naught of all this save what the lots shall truly give thee.” Chlodwig gave the vase to the messenger and “bore the insult with sweet patience, . . . hiding his wound in the recesses of his heart.” A whole year after, having drawn up his warriors for review, he passed down the line till he came last to the fellow who had struck the vase. Chlodwig reproved him sharply for his poor arms, and snatching his battle-axe threw it on the ground. As the soldier stooped to pick it up the king buried his own axe in the fellow’s skull, saying,

“Thus didst thou to the vase of Soisson.” “By this act he made himself greatly feared.” (Guizot’s *France*, I, 109, 110.)

5. CHLODWIG’S CONVERSION.—Chlodwig had married Clotilde, niece of the Burgundian king. She was a Christian, and Chlodwig came gradually toward her religion. In 496 A. D. Chlodwig was on the point of defeat in a great battle with the Allemans; then he prayed to “the Lord of heaven, whom the queen preached.” (See this prayer. Guizot’s *France*, I, 115.) Immediately the tide of battle turned. Chlodwig declared himself converted and was baptized with his followers. This act led eventually to the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire. (Chap. XV., 6.)

6. DEATH OF CHLODWIG, 511 A. D.—The reign of Chlodwig had consolidated and greatly enlarged the territories of the Franks. Chlodwig had overthrown, “often by the foulest means,” all the little independencies around him. Still because he protected the bishops they praised him extravagantly. He was even regarded as a sort of David, and Gregory of Tours said, “Thus every day God put down the enemies of Chlodwig and increased his kingdom, because he walked with a heart that was right before God and did that which was pleasing in His eyes!” At the death of Chlodwig his kingdom was divided among his four sons, and for more than a century France was to grope in the dark under the “do-nothing kings.” (Emerton’s *Introd.*, ch. VII. Gregory of Tours. *Historia Francorum*.)



## PART III.—THE NATIONS ASSUME THEIR PRESENT TERRI- TORIAL LIMITS.

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### CHAPTER XIII.—FRANCE UNDER THE “DO-NOTHING KINGS.”

1. FRANCE AND THE PAPACY.—During the long period of troubles in Rome which followed Constantine's desertion, the church of Rome grew apace. The bishop of Rome was till that time, in no way superior to the bishops of other great cities like Antioch, Alexandria, Constantinople, if not indeed distinctly inferior to some of them. Constantine had brought an obscure, very imperfectly organized sect into sudden prominence and power. Defects in organization had to be suddenly supplied and the church molded itself consciously on the forms of the Empire. Rome had been head of the Empire; the bishops of Rome at once insisted that it should be the head of the church. So vigorously was the assumption attacked that the bishops had to fortify their claims with the assertion that Peter had been the first bishop of Rome and his successors should be accorded first place in the church. In their frantic race for power the bishops of Rome turned from the Arians of Italy to the orthodox Franks, who from the time of Chlodwig were firm allies of the Papacy. This alliance determines the course of political affairs in the Middle Age.

(Emerton's *Introd.*, ch. IX. Gibbon, ch. XV., XVI. Among the most famous chapters in Gibbon.)

2. NEUSTRIA.—Half a century after the death of Chlodwig his kingdom was divided. Neustria was the western side of the Frankish dominion. Romanized Kelts greatly outnumbered Franks.

3. AUSTRASIA.—The eastern side of the Frankish dominions. Franks greatly outnumbered Kelts; thoroughly German. (See map, pp. 96, 97; also Emerton's *Introd.*, pp. 114, 115. Notice that the battle of Soisson extended the Frankish territory no farther south than Loire.

4. FREDEGONDA, QUEEN OF NEUSTRIA.—Chilperic's favorite concubine. She was of peasant birth; a powerful, coarse, and incredibly cruel woman; "beautiful, dexterous, ambitious, and bold." When in 566 Chilperic married Galswintha, a West Gothic princess, he put away his concubines. Galswintha brought vast treasures, but never won the king's love which Fredegonda had managed to hold. Galswintha became jealous and offered the king all her treasure if he would send her home free. Upon this Chilperic murdered (had her strangled in bed by a slave) the princess whom he had sought to be his wife, and "when he had mourned for her death, he espoused Fredegonda after an interval of a few days!" Fredegonda had caused Chilperic to banish and then murder one queen before this. The long story of her unbridled license and murders cannot be rehearsed here.

It culminates in an intrigue with a household officer. She had Chilperic slain to prevent his discovery of it. She had Gregory, bishop of Tours, tried for treason, but the old historian escaped conviction. "She died quietly at Paris, in 597 or 598, powerful and dreaded." (See Guizot's *France*, I, 134-137.)

5. BRUNHILDA, QUEEN OF AUSTRASIA.—Of noble birth, sister to Galswintha, and wife to Sigebert, king of Austrasia. The murder of Galswintha made Brunhilda the mortal and life-long enemy of the barbarous Neustrasian Queen. War at once broke out. Sigebert was victorious, but was just then assassinated by Fredegonda's emissaries. Brunhilda fell into the hands of Chilperic. Saved by asylum in Paris Cathedral. (Explain this.) Sent to Rouen. Chilperic's son was at Rouen on a mission, was smitten with Brunhilda's beauty and married her. Brunhilda thus became heir to Fredegonda's throne! But the Austrasians would not give up their queen. Fredegonda's fury pursued her stepson so relentlessly that he had himself killed. At last (614) Brunhilda, at the age of eighty fell into the hands of Fredegonda's son and successor, Clothar II, who had her "tied by the hair, one foot and one arm to the tail of an unbroken horse, that carried her away, and dashed her to pieces as he galloped and kicked, beneath the eyes of the ferocious spectators" (Clothar's army).

NOTE.—These stories must not be taken too seriously, though they are gravely related by Gregory of Tours, the historian of this period.

6. MAJOR DOMUS.—“Chief among the Frankish nobles were those who held an office near the person of the kings”—something like that of a prime minister; very much the sort of person that Prince Bismarck was for so long in the State of Prussia. This major domus, master or mayor of the palace became the most powerful prince at a Frankish court. Strong major domus, weak king. Office of major domus becomes hereditary; the kings become puppets. (Cf. Odovaker and the last Roman Emperors in the West. “Rome,” Chap. XXV, 5.) Very much in the same way the Merwing Kings of France—“*Les rois fainéants*”—were displaced by the energetic mayors of the palace, who presently had themselves declared king, thus founding the mighty Karling dynasty.

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#### CHAPTER XIV.—ALLIANCE BETWEEN THE POPES AND THE FRANKS.

1. KARL MARTEL. (Circa 689–741.)—Son of Pipin of Heristal, duke of Austrasia and major domus of the kings of France. He was disinherited by his father, but was made duke, nevertheless, by the popular voice. Karl Martel was a ruler by nature, and a conqueror. He laid the foundations of the vast empire of his grandson, Karl the Great. He subdued Neustria and Aquitaine, drove back the Saxons, and—what meant far more than all these to Europe—he met and defeated the Mohammedans in their career of world conquest between Tours and Poitiers in 732 A. D. (Creasy, Ch. VII.) From

the heavy blows he here dealt the Saracens comes his surname—Martel, Hammer. Neglecting the puppet king who had been brought from a monastery and compelled to reign (?) Karl at his death divided his hard won territories between his two sons. Carloman died. Pippin became sole ruler and left the kingdom to his son, the greatest of the Karlings.

2. FROM MAJOR DOMUS TO KING.—When Pippin *le Bref* succeeded Karl Martel it was indeed as real ruler, but not with the title of king. It was still thought wise to retain a phantom king. But Pippin *le Bref* was as active and able as his father had been, and he at last determined to assume the dignity as well as the responsibility of his office. Pippin accordingly addressed to Pope Stephen III (whose pretensions Pippin had supported) this question: “Should he have the title of king who has inherited it without power, or should he who has long been the real king?” The Pope in gratitude could send but one answer. The puppet king, Chilperic, was deposed and sent to a monastery while Pippin was anointed and crowned king of the Franks 752. Karling dynasty founded. (See map, T. and S., pp. 96, 97.)

3. THE PAPACY.—We have seen how the Bishop of Rome profited by the removal of the Emperor to Constantinople. (Chap. XIII, 1.) From that time it might almost be said that there were two worlds, each with its church and each with its empire. No sooner did the empire wane in Rome than the church sprang ambitiously into its place. No sooner did the empire

flourish in Constantinople than the church so felt its dignity that it refused to yield precedence to the Roman bishop. If, therefore, the empire survived in Constantinople (1) it must actually rule the Roman Bishop, or (2) he would rule the Eastern church, or (3) there must be two churches. The Eastern church could never rule the Roman bishop until the imperial power should be felt at Rome, nor could the Eastern church submit to the Roman bishop while the empire flourished at Constantinople. What this curious situation actually evolved was two churches and two empires. The nominal separation in the church came first. The question of the worship of images was raised. The West declared for images; the East declared against them. After a long, fierce struggle, the East was excommunicated, and a final separation took place. The images still have a place in the worship of the Roman Catholic Church.

4. THE BISHOP OF ROME INDEPENDENT OF THE EMPIRE.—This conflict about images (Iconoclasm) had another important result in the complete independence of the Roman bishop. Naturally the emperor at Constantinople sided with the East against images. At last the Roman bishop went so far as to excommunicate the Emperor himself. This was equivalent to a declaration of war. Both parties prepared. (It was just about this time that far off in Asia Mohammed was teaching another church, called heathen, to extend its dominion by the sword.) A fleet sent to take the Pope was wrecked. "The rebellion of the Pope had succeeded, and the Eastern Emperor never again received his allegiance." (Ch. XII.)

5. THE POPES TURN TO THE FRANKS.—But the Pope had escaped one master only to find himself exposed to another more dangerous, because nearer—the Lombards. (Chap. X., 5.) The King of the Lombards had caused the Pope much trouble and was now again threatening Rome. In his distress the successor of St. Peter appealed to Pippin. (Letter from St. Peter himself.) The Lombards were driven back and the conquered cities given to the Pope. Beginning of the territorial (temporal) power of the Papacy.

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## CHAPTER XV.—KARL THE GREAT.

1. KARL BECOMES KING OF THE FRANKS, 771 A. D.—In 768 Pippin died.—His dominions—according to the fatal rule of the Franks—were divided among his sons, Carloman and Karl. Carloman soon died and Karl the Great became sole monarch of the Franks in 771.

2. AN IMPORTANT DIVORCE CASE.—Karl married a daughter of the Lombard king, but within a year divorced her and sent her back. Upon this divorce perhaps turns the course of events for the Middle Age. Had the alliance between the Popes and Franks (Chap. XIV., 5,) been broken, as it must have been had this marriage united the Franks and the Lombards, the Popes could scarcely have held out against this combined force. There could then have been no Holy Roman Empire, (Sec. 6,) and future events must have taken a wholly different course.

3. CONQUEST OF THE LOMBARDS, 773 A. D.—As it was the Franks and the Lombards, were made mortal enemies. The Popes called upon Karl for protection. He marched into Italy, (773,) beat the Lombards, spent Easter with the Pope, and confirmed the donations of Pippin. (Chap. XIV., 5.) A few years later Karl completed his conquest and placed the iron crown upon his own head.

4. CONQUEST OF THE SAXONS.—For more than thirty years the Saxons held out against Karl. They would submit when Karl led an army among them, but refused obedience as soon as he was gone. Pagans. Karl bent upon their conversion. At last Karl, driven to despair by the continual uprisings of the Saxons, had 4,500 Saxon prisoners massacred in cold blood. Saxons finally submit. Baptized. They were held in the water, or were given their choice between baptism and the sword (See cut in Guizot's *France*, opp. p. 143). Even this did not subdue the fierce spirit of our own savage ancestors, and Karl had to resort to deportation. Thousands of Saxon families were scattered throughout his dominions.

5. KARL'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS LEARNING.—Karl was more than conqueror. He engaged the most learned men of his time to come to his court and teach. His very court was a sort of University—when it was not on an expedition, or engaged in the chase. Schools were founded throughout his kingdom. Alcuin (Who?) was the head of the court University. Karl gave German



names to the months, was interested in Astronomy, and compelled the priests to study. He recommended that there be made "no difference between the sons of serfs and of freemen, so that they might come and sit on the same benches to study grammar, music, and arithmetic.

6. KARL BECOMES EMPEROR. HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE. 800 A. D.—When Karl was in Italy, (on his second expedition against the Lombards?) 800 A. D., he went on Christmas Day to worship in the church of St. Peter. While he was kneeling at the altar the Pope, Leo III., came behind without Karl's knowledge and placed upon his head the crown of the Cæsars. By this act the Roman Empire in the West was restored; the Holy Roman Empire (which was "neither holy nor Roman nor an Empire") was created; the West could never be re-united with the East; the course of affairs for the Middle Age was sketched, at least in bold outline.

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## CHAPTER XVI.—THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE TO THE TREATY OF VERDUN. 843 A. D.

1. TWO EMPIRES.—The logic of events led to two churches. (Chap. XIV., 3) With the crowning of Karl by Leo III., in return for his own restoration, the Western church effected in theory the restoration of the Western Empire. Why did not the Eastern Empire treat this as a revolt, as it really was? Because the separation had gradually taken place long before in fact

and needed only this completion in theory to make it perfect. The People of the West had long been practically without an Emperor. In Karl they had found a man worthy to fill that high office.

2. THREE THEORIES OF THE ORIGIN OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.—(1) “The imperial party declared that Karl had won the crown by his conquests and was indebted to no one for it but himself.” (2) “The Papal party said that the Pope, by virtue of his authority as successor to St. Peter, had deposed the Emperor at Constantinople and conferred the crown on Karl.” (3) “The people of Rome also advanced a theory to the effect that they had elected Karl, and that they had revived their ancient right of electing the Emperor.” (Criticism of these theories.) It was almost three centuries after the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire before any theories about it became necessary.

3. THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE. 800–1806 A. D.—It would appear that a divorce led to the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire. (Chap. XV., 2.) It was actually inaugurated by the crowning of Karl on Christmas day, 800 A. D. More than a thousand years were to pass before Europe was to see another Karl. By that time the Empire had become too feeble to be of use, and Napoleon, choosing to rest his Empire on other theories, deposed Francis II, and brought the affairs of the Holy Roman Empire to a close in 1806.

4. WHAT WAS THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE?—An institution rather than a State such as we now understand

the word "Empire" to mean. At the time of its establishment it was really a State ruled by Karl the Great. It included, roughly, France, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Italy, with indefinite pagan countries to the northeast waiting to be added by conquest. The prospect was indeed dazzling. Was the world empire nearly reached by Alexander, and realized by the Romans for a brief time, at last to be permanently established? No; if that dream of the ages is ever to be realized it must be under a federal representative government which shall guarantee local freedom to its members. Like the great bow of Odysseus Karl's great empire could be bent only by the master's hand. Within a single generation after Karl's death (843) his vast empire had been divided into three parts. The Holy Roman Empire embraced henceforth only Germany and Italy. In its disregard of natural boundaries it ruined both countries. Italy, 1869, Germany, 1871. (Chap. X., 6. Bryce's *Holy Roman Empire*.)

5. THE TREATY OF VERDUN. AUGUST, 843 A. D. —Karl was succeeded by his son Ludwig the Pious. Ludwig was too lazy and worthless (pious?) to rule. So he divided up his kingdom among his three sons, 817. Afterwards Ludwig had a fourth son by a later marriage, while one of the older sons died. Ludwig now tried to favor the youngest son, and the two older rebelled. (What was the "Field of Lies?") Ludwig's indecision brought misery to himself and ruin to the Empire. Upon Ludwig's death in 840, the oldest son, Lothar, claimed the Empire. Ludwig and Charles

fought and defeated him at Fontenay. Lothar retired to Italy. Next spring Charles and Ludwig met near Strassburg and made an alliance. Each took the oath in the other's language. Both preserved. Oldest documents showing divergence of French and German. (Emerton's *Mediæval Europe*, p. 27.) After another year of war the three brothers agreed to the famous Treaty of Verdun: Lothar, Italy and Aachen as Emperor; Charles, France; Ludwig, Germany. Territorial origin of these countries. (See map, pp. 146, 147.)

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## CHAPTER XVII.—FRANCE IN THE MIDDLE AGE.

1. LAST OF THE KARLINGS.—After the treaty of Verdun the Karling line came first to an end in Italy. Lothar's sons fought over his dominions, and at their deaths left no offspring. Succeeded by French and German lines. In France Charles the Bald succeeded to the imperial honor, but his successors were weak, and in 884 the only Karling left in France was a boy five years old. The crown was given to Karl the Fat of Germany who had already the imperial crown. This was the last time the three crowns were united. With the death of Karl the Fat (887) the three countries became nearly what they have since remained, and it became customary for the imperial crown, with Italy, to go to the king of the Germans.

2. BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH MONARCHY.—At the death of Karl the Fat the French nobles elected

Count Odo of Paris, who became King of France, 888. He had to fight the Northmen who continued their invasions, (settled under Rolf (911) Normandy,) while the powerful nobles cared more for their own independence than for the nation's prosperity. At Odo's death he named Charles the Simple to succeed him. Odo's son, Robert, did homage to Charles "and received the duchy of France." ("Isle of France." See map, p. 487.) Robert's son, Hugo, Duke of Paris, might have become King, but declined. Hugo's son, Hugo Capet, was, upon the extinction of the Karling line, in 986, elected king of France. First of the Capetian dynasty.

3. THE FRENCH KING BOTH A SOVEREIGN AND AN OVERLORD.—As an overlord "he could deal directly only with the members of the feudal hierarchy." As a sovereign "he dealt directly with all the inhabitants of the kingdom." Hugh Capet was sovereign in the Isle of France and in Burgundy. He was overlord of the remainder of what is now France, and more. (Flanders, (where?) Poitou, Anjou, Poitiers, Gascony, and Aquitaine.) The problem for the French monarchy was, therefore, to bring the great countries under the immediate sway of the King—extend the sovereignty. The history of France is really an account of this process of centralization. But how had these great counts become so nearly independent? What was the counter process to that of centralization? It was FEUDALISM.

4. WHAT WAS FEUDALISM?—In a rude transitional age feudalism served instead of firmly established, well-

regulated governments. The sort of imperfect government called Feudalism required two things, land and allegiance. The extensive conquests of the Teutons furnished the land; the personal character of their law and organization—*comitatus*, (what?) made the tie of allegiance familiar. It was, therefore, among Teutonic peoples on Roman territory, as in France, that feudalism reached its most perfect development. Land at the disposal of the King. Distributed in large areas to his great lords on condition of furnishing troops for war—(allegiance.) Each lord might distribute his own area in the same way and so on indefinitely (subinfeudation). If now a weak King arises, the great lords disregard him and become practically independent. Precisely this had happened before Hugh Capet came to the throne, and it was a long (nearly three centuries) and difficult process to reduce these powerful hereditary lords again to submission. (Ch. XI.)

5. THE KING'S SOVEREIGN TERRITORIES ENLARGED.—Henry I. (1031–1060) added Sens at the death of its feudal lord. Conflict with William, Duke of Normandy. That the Duke proved stronger than the King is the best commentary on the character of overlordship. Henry's successor, Philip I., added the Vexin (north) by its owners going into a monastery; most of Vermandois by the death of its Count, and the city of Bourges (where?) by purchase. Then follow Aquitaine by marriage, Louis VII., (afterwards lost but recovered by Philip II.) ; Normandy, Anjou and Maine

by force of arms from John of England by Philip II.; Artois he obtained by his wife, Auvergne by war, Poitou by forfeiture from John, and Toulouse by marriage. Louis IX. acquired "Carcassonne, Beziers, Nismes, and Macon in the south, and the counties of Perche, Blois, Chartres, Sancerre in the north." Philip III. (1270–1285), by the marriage of his son added Navarre, Champagne, and Brie. Henceforth the Capetians were Kings in fact as well as in name. Centralization had overcome feudalism. (Ch. VII. and XVIII. to p. 510. For the struggle between France and England, see Gardiner on the Hundred Years' War.)

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## PART IV.—CHURCH AND STATE.

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### CHAPTER XVIII.—THE MOHAMMEDANS.

1. THE EASTERN QUESTION.—The so-called Eastern Question dates back at least to Marathon. There are three peninsulas in Southern Europe. The first great conflict between East and West took place in the most eastern peninsula—Marathon. The second, in the middle peninsula—Hannibal's Campaign in Italy. The third, in the western peninsula—the Mohammedans—Tours. Since Mohammed's time the Eastern Question has had four phases. (1) Expansion of the East from Mohammed to the Crusades (632–1096.) (2) Reaction of the West—the Crusades (1096–1270.) (3) Mohammedans push into Europe from the East (1270–1683.) (4) Decline of Mohammedanism since 1683—"The Sick Man of Europe."

2. MOHAMMED'S EARLY LIFE.—Of tribe of Koreish, keepers of Caaba, or temple of Mecca. Father, Abdallah, noted for beauty—when he married, two hundred maidens died of disappointment and jealousy (?) Mohammed born four years after the death of Justinian, Emperor of the East. Early deprived of father, grandfather, and mother. Poor. Camel driver to Cadijah, a rich widow. At age of twenty-five married Cadijah. Lived sober and virtuous life. At age of forty assumed title of Prophet



and proclaimed the religion of the Koran. Journeys into Syria brought him into contact with Jews, and gave him some knowledge of Hebrew Scriptures.

3. THE HEGIRA.—Mohammed's first disciple was his wife; the next, a young cousin. Number grew slowly. Relatives remonstrated. Hostility in Mecca grew. His tribe denounced his family and refused to have intercourse with them till they delivered the person of Mohammed to the justice of the gods. Mohammed's death was resolved. Heads of tribes agreed that a sword from each tribe should be buried in his heart to divide the guilt of his blood and to baffle vengeance. Mohammed warned. At dead of night he and a faithful friend, Abubeker, fled from Mecca. Hid in a cave for three days, then went on to Medina. This flight, known as The Hegira, is the beginning of the calendar for the Mohammedans.

4. THE KORAN.—Sacred book of the Mohammedans. "A paper copy in a volume of silk and gems was brought down to the lowest heaven by the angel Gabriel;" he revealed it bit by bit to Mohammed. Written down on "palm leaves and shoulder blades of mutton." The pages were cast pell-mell into a chest which was put in the care of one of Mohammed's wives. Two years after the death of Mohammed the sacred volume was collected and published by Abubeker. "The faith which, under the name of Islam, he preached to his family and nation, is compounded of an eternal truth and a necessary fiction: That there is only one God, and that Mohammed is the apostle of God." (Gibbon, ch. L).

5. SPREAD OF MOHAMMEDANISM.—After the Hegira, Mohammed preached at Medina. Was there received as a prophet. Made war on Mecca and captured the city. After Mohammed's death (632) his followers conquered Arabia; Persia (637–650); took Jerusalem (637); invaded Egypt; captured Alexandria and burned its great library. (Answer of Omar. Gibbon, Ch. LI.) Conquered Africa. Descended on Spain, 710 A. D. "The Arabian empire extended from the confines of Tartary and India to the shores of the Atlantic Ocean." Invaded France. They were finally checked by Karl Martel, and defeated "in the center of France between Tours and Poitiers." (Chap. XIV, 1.)

6. ARAB LEARNING AND UNIVERSITIES.—The Fatimites of Africa and the Ommiades of Spain were patrons of learning. Emulation among them diffused learning. The vizier of a Sultan founded the University at Bagdad. Private citizens collected books. The royal library of the Fatimites contained 100,000 volumes, and that of the Ommiades contained 600,000 volumes. There were seventy public libraries in the Andalusian kingdom alone. Their libraries contained orators and poets, general and partial history, codes and commentaries of jurisprudence, theological works of all kinds, and four classes of science. (1) Philosophy. (2) Mathematics. (3) Astronomy. (4) Physics. They made great progress in medicine—in anatomy, botany, and Chemistry. The age of Arabian learning continued about five hundred years. They disdained the study of any foreign tongue, and were ignorant of the Greek and Roman classics. They established

universities at Bagdad, Cairo, and Cordova. The intellectual life of ancient Greece carried to Asia by Alexander the Great thus returned in refreshing streams upon the barren wastes of the "Dark Ages." Prepared the way for the Renaissance.

7. THE CRUSADES. 1096–1270.—The most remarkable events of the Middle Age. Under the growing influence of the church, pilgrimages to the Holy Sepulchre had become very numerous. Strong desire of Christians to free Jerusalem from Mohammedan rule. Pope's influence gained by Peter the Hermit and for two hundred years Christian Europe poured itself in vast streams into Mohammedan Asia. 1. Led by Walter the Penniless, Godfrey of Bouillon, and Robert, son of William the Conqueror. Jerusalem taken—massacre—1099. Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. II. 1147–1149. Perished in Asia Minor. III. 1189–1192. Richard I. Philip II. Acre (where?) captured. IV. 1202–1204. Led by Baldwin of Flanders for Pope Innocent. Directed against Egypt. Established Latin Empire at Constantinople, with Baldwin as Emperor. Children's Crusade (1212). Thousands of Children perished. Re-action. V., VI., and VII. came to nothing. Results: 1. Greatly increased the power and influence of the church. 2. Strengthened Princes, weakened lords. 3. Developed commerce—Italian Republics. 4. Intellectual growth. 5. Orders of Knighthood: Hospitalers, Templars, Teutonic. (See map, p. 344–5; Cox's *The Crusades*.)

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## CHAPTER XIX.—THE EMPIRE (GERMANY) AND THE PAPACY (ITALY).

1. GROWTH OF GERMANY.—The Karling line became extinct in Germany in 911 (death of Ludwig, the child). Already the Germans had fallen into four great divisions. (1) Bavaria, (2) Swabia, (3) Franconia, (4) Saxony. These all united, however, to elect a king. Conrad of Franconia was chosen. (Conrad I., 911–918.) Conrad's problem was the same as that of Hugh Capet had been—to strengthen the monarchy at the expense of the great independent duchies. Conrad failed. Instead of cultivating patiently the growth of the royal domains as the Capetians did (Chap. XVIII., 5,) he insisted upon the complete submission of the great dukes at once. This roused the jealousy of the duchies before the monarch was able to use force, thus rendering future union difficult if not impossible.

2. OTTO THE GREAT. 936–973.—The next chance for the union of Germany came to Otto the Great. His father, Henry the Fowler, had a long and prosperous reign during which many of the evil effects of Conrad's indiscretion were overcome. Henry had been judicious, advancing only such claims as he could enforce. Otto proved to be a powerful ruler, able to support far greater pretensions. After fourteen years of conflict he forced the dukes to submit, and it looked as if Germany was to become a nation.

3. DECLINE OF THE PAPACY.—Under Nicholas I. (858–867) the Papacy had reached its full maturity—

the vicar of God on earth with kings and emperors for subjects. Nicholas showed himself superior to local councils and synods, made himself the supreme power in Italy, and forced the Emperor, Lothar II., (Karl's great-grandson) to submit to his decisions. But in this complete victory of the Papacy lay its defeat. It failed to recognize that it must depend for supremacy on the variety and universality of its interests. It should have allied itself with the Empire and made Italy and local matters secondary. But in the arrogance of its pretensions it refused to recognize the Emperor except as a subject. (Cf. the silly pretensions of Conrad I., sec. 1.) The successor of Nicholas was friendly to the Empire, but the Roman church would hear of no such thing. The Papacy became local and rapidly sank to the lowest depths of moral degradation.

4. TRIAL OF POPE FORMOSUS.—Upon the death of Nicholas's successor, Formosus, "a pope rushed hastily into office, died in a fortnight. Another set up by Roman factions lent himself to the unheard-of scheme of putting the dead Formosus through the form of a trial. The corpse of the pope, already eight months in the grave, was dug up and dragged to St. Peter's before a synod of the Roman clergy. Dressed in full pontificals it was placed upon the papal throne and furnished with an advocate for its defense. The advocate of the new pope, Stephen, then called upon the dead to declare why he had dared to ascend the throne of St. Peter while still holding the office of Bishop of Pontus. The advocate of

Formosus made what feeble defense he dared, but the assembly representing the voice of God on earth, declared Formosus guilty and deposed him from office. The papal garments were torn from the corpse, the three fingers with which he had given divine blessing were chopped off, and the body dragged out of the church by the heels, and thrown into the Tiber."

5. OTTO THE GREAT CALLED TO ITALY.—Under such a papacy Italy's condition was pitiable indeed. Neither the local king nor the pope was able to keep the peace, and in 951 Otto marched to Pavia and was crowned king of Italy. Before he could reach Rome he had to return home and spend ten years in repelling invasions and securing his authority in Germany. In the summer of 961, however, Otto is again in Italy. Mutual protestations of friendship. Otto admitted by the Pope to Rome to be crowned Emperor. But Otto charged his sword bearer: "While I am praying in St. Peter's keep your sword close to my head. When once we reach Monte Mario again you shall have time to pray as much as you like." It was not likely such a friendship would last. Soon the Pope displeased Otto and a war began.

6. OTTO'S PRIME MISTAKE.—The policy of the Empire should just now have been the reverse of the papal policy outlined above (Sec. 3). Otto should have remained in Germany till his own dominions were thoroughly welded. Then with a powerful and united Germany at his back an Emperor might have withstood

the Papacy. Otto forsook his real support, Germany, for an imaginary one, the Empire, and German unity was put off nearly a thousand years. (Chap. XXV, 6.)

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## CHAPTER XX.—THE STRUGGLE FOR POLITICAL SUPREMACY.

1. PREPARATIONS FOR THE STRUGGLE.—“As we enter upon the history of the great conflict of the Middle Ages, the struggle between the religious and the secular powers for the mastery in European affairs, it becomes important above all things to get a clear idea of the conditions under which this conflict was begun.” The immediate successors of Otto the Great (especially Otto III) continued his policy—neglected Germany for the Empire. The Roman factions, at last worn out, asked Otto to name a Pope. First German to become pope (Bruno) as Gregory V. Empire and Papacy at peace. Within a few months Sylvester II. became pope and immediately pushed the claim to papal supremacy. Christianization of Hungary and the northeast. Otto III. wished to make Rome his capital, and imagined wild things about an empire that was never to be—because it must depend not upon the imagination but upon the sword. Otto’s successor, Henry II. (1002–1024) of Bavaria saw that Germany was really to be controlled through the great bishoprics. These, therefore, Henry determined to conciliate and control.

2. “THE PAPAL PLATFORM.”—It was during the reign of Henry II. that the three points on which the

papacy made its great fight for political power came into view. (1) Celibacy of the parish clergy through all its orders. (2) Purity of election to ecclesiastical positions—simony forbidden. (3) Papal investiture—"the bishop should receive the right to perform the duties of his office from no layman whomsoever, but from the Pope alone." It was the third which was aimed directly at the Empire, and it was around this question of investiture that Church and State waged a devastating war for more than two hundred years.

3. HILDEBRAND, POPE GREGORY VII.—Henry II. appointed bishops nevertheless, both in Germany and in Italy. But in making a strong national church he forgot that these men might in a final issue put Church before State. Henry's successors (Conrad II., 1024–1039, and Henry III, 1039–1056) pushed the same policy with success. The German episcopacy stood by the Empire, and Henry III. made himself practically independent of the Popes. Henry IV. was but an infant at his accession, and the Pope, Victor II. was made his guardian. Victor was a German and did not use this opportunity to overthrow the Empire. Victor's death, with the Empire in the hands of a child, brought back the Roman factions and produced a Roman Pope, Stephen X. Soon died—poisoned. (?) Lateran Synod (1059) established college of bishops for election of Popes—constitution for an independent church. Fifteen years later Hildebrand caused himself to be hastily elected Pope as Gregory VII. (1073) without consulting the Emperor.



4. HENRY IV AND GREGORY VII.—A rebellion of the Saxons allowed Gregory at once to begin open warfare against Henry IV. Gregory allied himself with Henry's rebellious subjects, and in 1075 called a synod in which Lay Investiture (what?) was first prohibited. From the "Dictatus Papae" "it is clear that the aim of Gregory's policy was nothing short of a complete subjugation of every earthly power to the final arbitrament of Rome." Henry paid no attention to these pretensions of the Pope. The Pope remonstrated; Henry invested bishops. The Pope excommunicated Henry's officers; Henry retained them in his service. Then came messengers to say to Henry that he must dismiss these officers and cease to invest bishops or he would be excommunicated. Immediately Germany was in a fever of excitement. National Council at Worms declared independence of the Pope and called on the Italians to do likewise. Henry was deposed and excommunicated. At first no attention was paid to either, but slowly the Pope gathered power. Agreement reached that Henry should be practically a prisoner at Speier, and unless he could free himself from the excommunication by the next February his people should be absolved from allegiance.

5. CANOSSA. 1077.—Henry now saw that he must escape the excommunication at any cost. Journeyed in winter across the Alps. Outwitted the Pope who was hastening to Germany to turn his advantage to full account. "Gregory was fairly caught." He kept the king waiting three days, (Henry stood barefoot in the

snow without the gate?), then restored him to favor. The Pope had gone too far, and for several years everything turned once more in favor of the Empire. Gregory exiled to Salerno where he died 1085. “‘I have loved justice and hated iniquity, therefore I die in exile,’ were the last words of the greatest man of his time, one of the greatest of all time.”

6. END OF THE STRUGGLE.—Soon after Henry's son rebelled and the Pope became supreme. Henry IV died defeated. Concordat of Worms (1122). Compromise (what?) Still the struggle dragged on. Germany falling into jealous, independent states. The Popes pursued their policy till the extinction of the Hohenstauffen House in 1254, when they became completely victorious and Germany was left without a ruler. The Great Interregnum.

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## PART V.—CHANGE FROM MEDIEVAL TO MODERN CONDITIONS.

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### CHAPTER XXI.—THE NORTHMEN. THE CITIES.

1. WHO WERE THE NORTHMEN?—"The bold searovers and pirates of Scandinavia and Denmark." As early as 787 the coast of England had been attacked by pirates from the continent. Alfred the Great finally beat these back and restricted them to the Danelaw. (Treaty of Chippenham, 878). After a century and a quarter of struggle, however, England was forced to yield and these hardy seamen ruled the country from 1016 to 1042.

2. NORTHMEN IN FRANCE.—The Northmen are said to have appeared in France as early as the time of Karl the Great. Karl wept when he saw one of their swift ships in the Seine, "because," said he, "I foresee the misery they will bring my country." Charles the Simple settled Rollo and his followers on the Lower Seine (911). Normandy. William the Conqueror. Four centuries of desolation for France ending with close of the Hundred Years' War, 1451. (Ch. IX.)

5. NORTHMEN IN ITALY AND ELSEWHERE.—Southern Italy was held partly by the Saracens and partly by

the Eastern Emperor. In 1016 a band of Norman pilgrims was shipwrecked at Salerno (where?). They immediately began war on the Saracens. By 1081 they were secure in Italy and ready under their brave leader, Robert Guiscard, to attack the Eastern Empire. Robert would probably have overthrown the Eastern Empire had not Gregory VII. recalled him to help against Henry IV. (Chap. XX., 4). Kingdom of the Two Sicilies founded. The Northmen had also pushed eastward through Russia as far as Novgorod. They had settled Iceland (874?), discovered America (1000), and, as we have seen, established themselves firmly in England, France, and Italy. (Chap. X.: also Wheaton's *History of the Northmen*; Arts. "Normands" and "Normans," in *Encyc. Brit.*)

4. DEVELOPMENT OF THE CITIES IN THE TWELFTH CENTURY.—As governments became more stable the peasant class gained rapidly in importance. Began to form communities, villages, cities, which could make better terms with the lord than could individuals. (Guilds. Find what these were.) Did medieval cities have an independent origin, or did they spring from Roman corporations? Probably both. Cities soon became centers of wealth. (Why?) Kings and lords granted them liberties in return for money furnished. Free cities.

5. THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE, 1330—CIRCA 1500.—At first a league of merchants to protect trade when government was little more than the right to defend

oneself against the Robber Barons. (Who were these?) Later a league of eighty-five or more cities of Germany and the Baltic for the control of commerce in their own interest. Conquest of Denmark—Treaty of Stralsund. From 1361 the League was a political power able to dictate to some neighboring states. Federal government. Assemblies met once a year, usually at Lubeck. Their Recesses (laws) have been preserved. During the fifteenth century the Hansa became gradually weaker through—(1) jealousy, (2) stronger governments—protection no longer needed, (3) geographical discoveries, (4) loss of independence by the towns as feudal privileges disappeared.

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## CHAPTER XXII.—THE RENAISSANCE AND THE UNIVERSITIES.

1. WHAT WAS THE RENAISSANCE?—That revival of interest in the life and literature of ancient Greece and Rome which came to its full flower in the age of Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio. It has no date, but is usually associated with the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. It will be best understood by a glimpse of the men who led in the new learning.

2. DANTE ALIGHIERI.—Born 1265, *i. e.*, just about the end of the great struggle between the Empire and the Papacy, and the close of the Crusades. Forerunner of the Renaissance, but not himself a Humanist. (One who cultivated the “humanities,” *i. e.*, classical life and literature, as distinguished from the theological subjects

which had been all the fashion.) Studied all the famous poets, also Philosophy, Theology, Astrology, Arithmetic, Geometry, and History. Skilful draughtsman. Became embroiled with the political factions of Florence—the “Blacks” and the “Whites.” Dante banished the heads of both factions, but was afterwards himself condemned to pay 5,000 lire in three days or suffer confiscation of his property. He was soon after condemned to be burned. Escaped, and in his wanderings probably went to England and visited Oxford University. Last days spent in poverty. Died at Ravenna, 1321.

3. PETRARCH. FRANCESCO PETRARCA. 1304–1374. —A leading Humanist, a lover of the New Learning. His father had been a notary in the Florentine Court but was expelled. Petrarch disliked law, his father’s profession, but loved the works of the classical writers. His father was angered and threw his books of poetry and rhetoric into the fire, but relented on account of his son’s entreaties in time to save a Virgil and a half-burned Cicero. (How were books made in those days? What was their value?) Left in poverty at his father’s death. Took orders. Traveled and won fame as a poet. Honored by University of Paris—offered him the poet’s laurel crown which, however, he accepted from King Robert of Naples. Declined papal secretaryship and many other honors. A lover of learning and made it the fashion to love learning. Petrarch brought the men of his time into intelligent contact with antiquity. Was found dead in his library among his books.

4. **BOCCACCIO, GIOVANNI.** 1313–1375.—Illegitimate son of a wealthy merchant. Wrote poetry at the age of seven. Hated commerce; tried law, but preferred to write. First work of Boccaccio was a prose tale. His poetry severely criticized. The young queen Giovanna of Naples showed him favor, and it was to please her that he wrote the *Decameron*—a distinctly human work, strongly opposed to the theological mold in which previous learning had been cast. Offered a chair in Florence University to interpret Dante's *Divina Commedia*. Accepted. Died poor, leaving his books to his father confessor.

5. Study and report these earlier lovers of learning: Gregory of Tours, historian of the Franks; Karl the Great, Alcuin, Paulus Diaconus (Paul the Deacon, the historian of the Lombards), Berengar of Tours, Anselm, Abelard (1079–1142), Bernard of Clairvaux, Thomas Aquinas, Duns Scotus. Also topics like Karling Renaissance, Transubstantiation, Predestination, Asceticism, Cluny, The Cluniac Reforms, Scholasticism, Nominalism, Realism, Mysticism, The Mendicant Scholars, St. Francis of Assissi, St. Dominic, the "Wandering Scholars."

6. **THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS.**—One of the oldest of the Universities, dating back perhaps to the eleventh century. The rise of universities in the Middle Age points to the emancipation of scholarship and teaching from monastic control. One expression of the Revival of Learning. The universities were at first no more

than associations of teachers and learners—usually a great leader of thought (as William of Champeaux at Paris) with his followers gathered to his lectures. Usually in important centres. Frequent collisions between “town” and “gown.” Among the early universities Paris came to stand for Theology, Bologna for Law, Salerno for Medicine (The “three learned professions” to this day). (Find origin and meaning of degrees A. B., A. M., Ph.D.)

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## CHAPTER XXII.—THE GREAT PROTESTANT REFORMATION.

1. WYCLIFFE. (1320 (?)–1384.)—Perhaps the relation (or distinction) between the Revival of Learning and the Reformation may be best understood by noticing that Wycliffe, the forerunner of the Reformation, was born almost in the very year in which Dante, the forerunner of the Revival of Learning, died. The Renaissance means the breaking away from the orthodox modes of *thought*; the Reformation, the breaking away from the orthodox modes of *life* and *action*. Wycliffe was an Oxford man; one of the ablest preachers of his time. His first writing was political; denied the right of the church to meddle in temporal affairs; finally denied the right of the church to any temporal possessions whatever. (See seven points of his creed, Encyc. Brit., Art. “Wycliffe.”) Wycliffe made first complete English version of the Bible, and sent “plain men” to preach the truth as found in it. Denied doctrine of transubstantia-



tion; tried for heresy; supported by Oxford; cited to Rome by Urban VI; refused to go. Died in Leicestershire. The Council of Constance (1415) ordered his remains to be dug up and burned. Order executed (1428.)

3. JOHN HUSS.—A Bohemian. Born 1369. Learned and then taught the doctrines of Wycliffe. Pope issued a bull (1409) ordering the abjuration of all Wycliffite heresies and the surrender of all his books. Four hundred Wycliffe books burned in courtyard of palace of Archbishop of Prague. Henceforth Huss publicly defended Wycliffe. Excommunicated. Huss then denounced sale of "Indulgences." Sent for to attend Council of Constance (1418). Went under the solemn promise of the Emperor Sigismund that his life should be protected. Basely betrayed. Burned July 6th, 1415. "He was the chief intermediary in handing on from Wycliffe to Luther the torch which kindled the Reformation."

3. ERASMUS DESIDERIUS. (1466–1536). Born out of wedlock at Rotterdam. Cared for by his father, but both father and mother died young. Erasmus was a humanist, not a reformer, but his great learning and writings were in both time and form so perfectly suited to the needs of the Reformers that he is regarded as belonging to the Reformation. The Pope said: "Erasmus laid the egg, Luther hatched it." He was destined for a monastic life but loathed it. Made his way to Paris, afterward to Oxford, England. Always miserably poor. A prodigious worker. Most noted for

a Greek version of the New Testament, with copious notes which the church found most hateful. "The purpose of his life was to fight the battle of sound learning and plain common sense against the powers of ignorance and superstition."

4. MARTIN LUTHER. (1483-1546).—Enough has been said to show that although Luther has come to be known as the Great Reformer; he was by no means the Reformation. Luther succeeded mainly because the return to the simple truths of the Bible as taught by Wycliffe and Huss had gained rapidly in force, and the Pope found himself unable to burn all who had the courage to stand for truth against churchism. Luther denied transubstantiation; Wycliffe's decayed body had been dug from the ground and burned because Wycliffe had preached against transubstantiation. Luther revolted and nailed his "Theses" to the door of Wittenburg Church because the open, shameless sale of indulgences to get money to build St. Peter's at Rome had insulted him; Huss had been betrayed and burned because he had dared to raise his voice against the sale of indulgences. Luther was warned, then excommunicated; but Germany had come to his side. Tried at the great Diet at Worms, Luther, like Huss, refused to recant; but in Luther's case the treacherous effort to betray him in spite of the Emperor's safe conduct (what?) failed. The Reformation had become a fact. Not Luther but Germany had revolted from "the Church." The effort of Spain to crush political liberty was defeated by England

—Armada, 1588. (Creasy, Ch. X.) The effort of the church to crush religious liberty was doomed to utter defeat from the day that Luther's safety became assured, and was acknowledged by the Treaty of Westphalia, 1648.

5. CALVIN. 1509–1564.—A Frenchman by birth. Led the Reformation in France (where it failed practically), and also (with Zwingli) in Switzerland (where it succeeded). Calvin differed with Luther on some doctrinal points and a meeting was arranged to adjust differences. Failed: Luther refused the proffered hand of friendship. The English church founded by Henry VIII. became Calvinistic through religious exiles who learned Calvin's doctrines in the Netherlands and carried them back to England.

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## CHAPTER XXIV.—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. 1789.

1. FRANCE BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.—We left France at the end of the Hundred Years' War (1451) with her territory at last pretty well consolidated. With Louis XII. (1498) the House of Orleans came to the throne. This dynasty won back Calais, the last English possession in France. The Huguenot Wars (1562–1598), caused by cruel persecution. Civil wars continually through the reign of Henry III. House of Bourbon—Henry IV. King of Navarre, a Protestant. Life in danger till he became a Catholic. He issued Edict of Nantes (1598) giving Huguenots equal political rights

with Catholics. His great minister was Sully. Then came Louis XIII., under whom the States General called for last time (1614) before the Revolution. Richelieu. Louis' sister became wife of Charles I. of England and gave her name to Maryland. Mary de'Medici. Louis XIV. (1643–1715). Five years old. France reduced to absolute dependence on the king. "L'etat, c'est moi." Mazarin. Colbert. Madame de Maintenon. Edict of Nantes revoked 1688. Huguenots flee to America. Louis XV. "The Well-beloved." "After us the Deluge." Louis XVI. became king of a starving people. The Revolution could be put off no longer.

2. OUTBREAK OF THE REVOLUTION.—Louis XVI. had neither the courage to reform the State nor the strength to rule it as it was. Maurepas, Turgot, Necker, and Calonne successively called to the task of reform. Failed. Assembly of Notables summoned (1787). Soon dissolved without effecting anything. As a last resort States General summoned for first time in 175 years, May 5, 1789. Vote by orders or by individuals? *Tiers etat* at last revolted, assumed title of National (Constituent) Assembly, June 17, 1789. Hall locked. Met in tennis court—President Bailly. "Oath of the Tennis Court" not to separate till they had made a constitution. Clergy and nobility join the commons. Rumors of dissolving the Assembly, dismissal of Necker, and concentration of troops around Paris, led to the Destruction of Bastille, July 14th, 1789. The Revolution had begun in earnest.

3. EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI., JANUARY 21, 1793. —The National Assembly continued its work of constitution-making in the midst of the worst disorders. Paris practically in the hands of a mob all the time. Hunger. March of the mob of women to Versailles. Insurrections in the districts. (What were the Assignats?) Constitution adopted on the anniversary of the destruction of the Bastille, 1790. Jacobin and other clubs organized. New constitution went into effect with the meeting of the Legislative Assembly, October 1, 1791. The Girondists. The Mountain. Prussia and Austria unite against the Revolutionists. Defeated. Tuilleries stormed. Massacre of the Swiss Guards. (Thorwaldsen's Lion, Lake Lucerne, Switzerland.) Jacobins in power. Jail delivery. Danton Minister of Justice. National Convention composed entirely of Republicans, September 21, 1792. Monarchy abolished. Louis XVI. tried before this assembly and condemned; sentenced to be beheaded.

4. REIGN OF TERROR.—Reaction. Committee of Public Safety (9 then 12), headed by Danton and Robespierre. Reign of Terror ended with the fall of Robespierre, July 27, 1794. Moderate Party in control. By the Constitution of 1795, Paris established the Government of the Directory. (1) Executive directory of five persons. (2) Legislative, Council of Elders (250), and a Council of Five Hundred.

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**CHAPTER XXV.—NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.**

1. THE ITALIAN CAMPAIGN.—Napoleon was born August 15, 1769, in Corsica. Family probably noble but very poor. Was sent to military school of Brienne, Paris. Led his comrades in mock battles and read Plutarch's *Lives*. At the age of twenty-six the Directory put him in command of the troops in Paris. Turned his cannon on the mob and reduced the city to order. Directory sent three armies against Austria. Jourdan and Moreau on the north, Napoleon in Italy. Defeated the Austrians in a series of battles. Note Lodi: Siege of Mantua, and Arcola. Took the Pope prisoner. Peace of Campo Formio, October 17, 1797. Austria lost the Belgian provinces, Ionian Islands, Cisalpine Republic.

2. NAPOLEON, FIRST CONSUL. 1799–1804.—Napoleon's Egyptian Campaign (1798–1799) followed his brilliant achievements in Italy. Battle of the Pyramids: "Soldiers, forty centuries look down upon you." Failure of his attempt upon Akko. (Where?) French fleet destroyed by Nelson at Aboukir (where?) 1798. November 9, 1799, the Council of Five Hundred overthrew the Directory and made Bonaparte, who had just arrived from Egypt without orders, First Consul for ten years. New constitution; Senate of Eighty elected for life; tribunate of One Hundred to discuss measures without voting; legislative chamber of Three Hundred with power only to accept or reject measures without debate. Executive in hands of First Consul with a council of State. Legislature had no initiative.

3. PEACE OF LUNEVILLE.—February 9th, 1801. Napoleon offered peace; refused by Austria, but Russia was won over. Napoleon in Italy, Moreau in Germany. Austria ground between the upper and nether mill stones. Massena defeated. Genoa taken by siege, passage of the Alps (Great St. Bernard Pass), Marengo (1800). Just before Marengo, Moreau had defeated the Austrians at Hohenlinden, and the next year, February 9, 1801, Peace of Luneville (where?) Austria thoroughly humiliated. Lost Tuscany, the left bank of the Rhine, and acknowledged the Batavian, Helvetian, Cisalpine, and Ligurian Republics. The next year the Peace of Amiens (where?), March 27, 1802, with England. Napoleon then caused himself to be elected Consul for life. On the 18th May, 1804, he was proclaimed Emperor as Napoleon I.

4. THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.—Soon England, Prussia, Austria and Russia united against Napoleon. Battle of Trafalgar (1805). Nelson: "England expects every man to do his duty." Austerlitz. Truce with Austria. Treaty of Presburg. Prussia humbled. Confederation of the Rhine (1806). End of the Holy Roman Empire by the abdication of Francis II., Emperor of Austria since 1804. War again with Prussia and Russia. Jena and Auerstadt (1806); Eylau and Friedland (1807). Peace of Tilsit—meeting of Alexander, Napoleon and Frederick William on a raft in the Niemen. Russia forced to consent to the dismemberment of Prussia. Duchy of Warsaw formed out of her eastern possessions, while she was compelled to cede all her territory between the Rhine and the Elbe. But peace could not be main-

tained, and after Napoleon's failure in Spain backed by England—Wellington—and another defeat of Austria—Wagram (1809), followed by the peace of Vienna—an invasion of Russia was undertaken 1812. The march on Moscow—Borodino; Moscow burned (by the Russians?). The retreat—Passage of the Berezina.

5. BATTLE OF WATERLOO.—After the terrible failure of the campaign in Russia, Napoleon's enemies once more united against him.—War of Liberation (1813). A long series of battles culminating in the battle of Leipzig. ("Battle of the Nations,") October 16, 18, 19, 1813. Napoleon totally defeated and his army nearly destroyed on the retreat—premature destruction of the bridge over the Elster. Allies cross the Rhine and enter Paris after hard fighting, March 31, 1814. Napoleon made a futile attempt to poison himself. Was sent to Elba. Soon escaped. The Hundred Days. Defeated at Waterloo, June 18, 1815, by Wellington and Blucher, and died at St. Helena (where?) 1821.

6. ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, JANUARY 18, 1871.—Prussia rapidly recovered after Napoleon's fall—Confederation of the Rhine came to an end 1813 (sec. 4). German Confederation with Austria and Prussia as leaders 1815–1866. Six weeks' war thrust Austria out. Prussia formed the North German Confederation 1866. German unity finally achieved through the Franco-Prussian War 1870–1871. King of Prussia proclaimed at Versailles Emperor of the Germans as William I., January 18, 1871. The King of Prussia is always to be the Emperor.





